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**A TIME-DOMAIN INCIDENT FIELD EXTRAPOLATION  
TECHNIQUE BASED ON THE SINGULARITY  
EXPANSION METHOD (U)**

by

**J.J.A. Klaasen<sup>1</sup>**

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# **A TIME-DOMAIN INCIDENT FIELD EXTRAPOLATION TECHNIQUE BASED ON THE SINGULARITY EXPANSION METHOD (U)**

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*Electronics Division*

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## ABSTRACT

In this report, a method is presented to extrapolate measurements from Nuclear Electromagnetic Pulse (NEMP) assessments directly in the time domain. This method is based on a time-domain extrapolation function which is obtained from the Singularity Expansion Method representation of the measured incident field of the NEMP simulator.

Once the time-domain extrapolation function is determined, the responses recorded during an assessment can be extrapolated simply by convolving them with the time-domain extrapolation function.

It is found that to obtain useful extrapolated responses, the incident field measurement needs to be made minimum phase; otherwise unbounded results can be obtained.

Results obtained with this technique are presented, using data from actual assessments.

## RÉSUMÉ

Ce rapport décrit une méthode pour extrapoler des mesures obtenues lors de tests d'impulsions électromagnétiques (IEM) directement dans le domaine temporel. Cette méthode utilise une fonction d'extrapolation temporelle obtenue par la méthode d'expansion des singularités appliquée au champ incident mesuré du générateur d'IEM. A partir de cette fonction d'extrapolation, les réponses enregistrées lors de test d'IEM peuvent être extrapolées simplement en effectuant une convolution. Il est démontré que pour obtenir une extrapolation valable, les mesures du champ incident doivent être à phase minimale. Des résultats obtenus avec cette méthode et utilisant des mesures réelles sont présentés.

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## **EXECUTIVE SUMMARY**

Most Nuclear Electromagnetic Pulse (NEMP) simulators do not reproduce the expected NEMP threat. They fail to reproduce both the waveform and the peak field strength of the perceived threat level. This is especially true for radiating and hybrid simulators, which produce a waveform which is significantly different from the waveform of the perceived threat.

To compensate for these shortcomings, the measured responses in NEMP assessments have to be corrected (extrapolated) to calculate the response that would be expected from a NEMP.

In this report, a method is presented to extrapolate such measurements directly in the time domain.

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## 1 INTRODUCTION

Most Nuclear Electromagnetic Pulse (NEMP) simulators do not reproduce the expected NEMP threat as laid down by AEP 4 [1]. They fail to reproduce both the waveform and the peak field strength of the perceived threat level (also known as the criterion environment), which includes reflections from the earth for ground-based facilities, but not so for airborne systems. To compensate for these shortcomings, the measured responses in NEMP assessments have to be corrected (extrapolated) to calculate the response that would be expected from a NEMP.

This is a particular problem for radiating and hybrid simulators, which produce a waveform which is significantly different from the waveform of the perceived threat. The measurements from NEMP assessments using such simulators have therefore always to be extrapolated.

In this report, what is known as *incident field extrapolation* will be addressed (see Baum [2], type 3A). This type of extrapolation not only corrects for the difference in waveform, but also tries to correct the different spatial behaviour of the incident field of the simulator, compared with the criterion environment. An extrapolation function which is an average over the space of interest, i.e., the test volume of the simulator, is therefore constructed.

Chapter 2 gives an overview of the basic incident field extrapolation method, and derives some properties of the extrapolation function based on signal theory considerations. How the incident field extrapolation method has been implemented in the past is also addressed in Chapter 2. Traditional implementations are without exception based on *frequency-domain techniques*.

An extrapolation technique which uses time-domain techniques is presented in Chapter 3. This technique constructs the extrapolation function entirely in the time domain. Some results are presented in Chapter 4.

## 2 INCIDENT FIELD EXTRAPOLATION

With incident field extrapolation, an extrapolation function is constructed which is an average over the space of interest, i.e., the test volume of the simulator. Furthermore, the system under test is assumed to be configured in the normal operating-mode for the system, and the interaction between the simulator structure and the object is neglected.

Extrapolation to correct differences in polarization, angle of incidence, or direction of propagation of the incident field between the criterion environment and the simulation will not be addressed in this report. This simplifies the analysis and notation. Also geometrical differences between the test environment and the normal operating environment, most importantly the presence or absence of the influence of the earth, will not be considered. Therefore, the type of extrapolation addressed in this report is limited to airborne systems in bounded wave simulators and ground-based facilities for radiating simulators.

### 2.1 THE BASIC FORMULATION

Let the response of a linear and time-invariant system in its normal operating-mode and environment to an incident NEMP be denoted by  $g(t)$ . The response  $g(t)$  can be, for example, an electric or a magnetic field, a current or a voltage. Then  $g(t)$  is the response of the system in the criterion environment, and is given by<sup>2</sup>

$$g(t) = \int_0^t h(t-\tau) e_{\text{EMP}}(\tau) d\tau = h(t) * e_{\text{EMP}}(t), \quad (1)$$

where the asterisk denotes the convolution operator, and  $h(t)$  is the impulse response of the system. When necessary, the latter takes into account reflections from the earth. Furthermore,  $e_{\text{EMP}}(t)$  is the waveform of the perceived threat of the NEMP, and can be the incident electric or the incident magnetic field. For of a high-altitude NEMP environment,  $e_{\text{EMP}}(t)$  is usually given by (Bell Laboratory waveform)

$$e_{\text{EMP}}(t) = A(e^{-\alpha t} - e^{-\beta t}), \quad (2)$$

---

<sup>2</sup> For simplicity a scalar notation has been employed throughout the text.

with

$$\begin{aligned} A &= 5.278 \times 10^4 \text{ [V/m]}, \\ \alpha &= 3.705 \times 10^6 \text{ [s}^{-1}\text{]}, \\ \beta &= 3.908 \times 10^8 \text{ [s}^{-1}\text{]}. \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

The impulse response of the system during the simulation will be the same as the impulse response during its normal operating-mode, only if the following three conditions are satisfied:

- the interaction between the system under test and the simulator structure can be neglected,
- the system is configured the same as during its normal operating-mode,
- the test environment is the same as the normal operating-mode environment (i.e., an airborne system must be tested without the influence of the earth, and vice versa for a ground-based system).

Assuming that the above mentioned conditions are satisfied, the response of the system in the NEMP simulator is given by (assuming a linear system)

$$g_{\text{sim}}(t) = h(t) * e_{\text{sim}}(t), \quad (4)$$

where  $e_{\text{sim}}(t)$  is the incident electric or incident magnetic field of the simulator. In this context, incident means the field in the working volume of the simulator in absence of the system under test. Furthermore, the system response  $g_{\text{sim}}(t)$  is the same physical quantity as  $g(t)$  in Eq.(1).

It is well-known that an approximation to the response  $g(t)$  can be reconstructed in the following way (see Baum [2], type 3A)

$$g_x(t) = \mathcal{L}^{-1}\{X(s)G_{\text{sim}}(s)\}, \quad (5)$$

where  $g_x(t)$  denotes the extrapolated response, which is, unfortunately, not necessarily equal to  $g(t)$ . The difference between  $g_x(t)$  and  $g(t)$  is the (unknown) error in the extrapolation. Furthermore in Eq.(5), a quantity indicated with a capital letter denotes a complex frequency-domain quantity,  $\mathcal{L}^{-1}\{.\}$  denotes the inverse Laplace transform operator, and  $s$  denotes the complex-frequency variable  $s = \sigma + j\omega$ .  $X(s)$  is the extrapolation transfer



function given by

$$X(s) = E_{\text{EMP}}(s)/E_{\text{sim}}(s). \quad (6)$$

Instead of using Eq.(5), another representation for the extrapolated response is

$$g_x(t) = x(t) * g_{\text{sim}}(t). \quad (7)$$

Eqs.(5) and (7) clearly show that  $X(s)$  plays the role of a transfer function, and  $x(t)$  that of the impulse response pertaining to the transfer function  $X(s)$ .

The extrapolation impulse response is determined by

$$x(t) = \mathcal{L}^{-1}\{X(s)\} = \mathcal{L}^{-1}\{E_{\text{EMP}}(s)/E_{\text{sim}}(s)\}, \quad (8)$$

or directly in the time domain

$$x(t) = e_{\text{EMP}}(t) * e_{\text{sim}}^{-1}(t), \quad (9)$$

in which  $e_{\text{sim}}^{-1}(t)$  is the inverse signal of  $e_{\text{sim}}(t)$ , defined by

$$e_{\text{sim}}^{-1}(t) \doteq \mathcal{L}^{-1}\{1/E_{\text{sim}}(s)\}. \quad (10)$$

Notice that  $e_{\text{sim}}(t)$  and  $e_{\text{sim}}^{-1}(t)$  are related by

$$e_{\text{sim}}(t) * e_{\text{sim}}^{-1}(t) = \delta(t), \quad (11)$$

where  $\delta(t)$  denotes the Dirac delta function.

When the incident field of the simulator not only differs in waveform and peak field strength from the criterion environment, but also exhibits a different spatial behaviour, the extrapolation transfer function  $X(s)$  depends on the point of observation. This is usually the case with radiating simulators such as FEL-TNO's EMIS-3. It is advantageous, however, to define an "average" extrapolation function which will be used for all positions in the test volume. In that case,  $E_{\text{sim}}(s)$  may be taken as a geometrical average, i.e., the average of several field-mapping measurements at different positions in the test volume.

Some requirements for the extrapolation functions will be discussed in the next section.

## 2.2 SOME PROPERTIES OF THE EXTRAPOLATION FUNCTION

Although the formulation of the incident field extrapolation is quite straightforward, some difficulties arise which we will address in this chapter. But before we do so, we first introduce some definitions.

**Definition 1:** A signal  $f(t)$  is said to be bounded if and only if there exists a finite positive constant  $M$ , such that

$$|f(t)| < M, \quad \forall t.$$

**Definition 2:** A transfer function  $H(s)$  is said to be stable if and only if its impulse response  $h(t)$  is bounded.

**Definition 3:** A transfer function  $H(s)$  is said to be *strictly* stable if and only if its response to a bounded input is bounded.

Definition 3 leads to the following theorem:

**Theorem 1:** A transfer function  $H(s)$  is strictly stable if its impulse response  $h(t)$  satisfies the inequality

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |h(t)| dt < \infty.$$

The extrapolation process can be called successful and of practical use, only if the extrapolated response is causal and bounded. From Eq.(7) and Definition 3, we conclude that the extrapolation impulse response  $x(t)$  must then be causal, and the extrapolation transfer function  $X(s)$  strictly stable.

Because the extrapolation impulse response is a convolution of two causal signals, causality is always guaranteed. Whether or not the extrapolation transfer function is strictly stable, however, depends on  $e^{-1}_{\text{sim}}(t)$ . In fact, it is easy to show that  $X(s)$  is strictly stable if and only if  $e^{-1}_{\text{sim}}(t)$  is bounded. This puts some restrictions on  $e^{-1}_{\text{sim}}(t)$ <sup>3</sup>.

To analyze the restrictions we have to impose on  $e^{-1}_{\text{sim}}(t)$ , consider a bounded signal  $f(t)$ . In principle, the Laplace transform  $F(s)$  of  $f(t)$  has a finite number of poles, a finite number of zeros, and some branch points in the complex-frequency plane. It can be proven

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<sup>3</sup> Note that  $e^{-1}_{\text{sim}}(t) \neq 1/e_{\text{sim}}(t)$ .

easily that a necessary (but not sufficient) requirement for  $f(t)$  to be bounded, is that its poles must be located in the left half-plane or on the  $j\omega$ -axis of the complex-frequency plane. Since  $F^{-1}(s) = 1/F(s)$ , the poles of  $F(s)$  are the zeros of  $F^{-1}(s)$ . But more importantly, the zeros of  $F(s)$  are the poles of  $F^{-1}(s)$ . This yields the following theorem:

**Theorem 2:** For a bounded signal  $f(t)$  to have a bounded inverse signal  $f^{-1}(t)$ , where  $f(t) * f^{-1}(t) = \delta(t)$ , it is necessary but not sufficient that the poles and zeros of its Laplace transform  $F(s)$  lie only in the left half-plane or on the  $j\omega$ -axis of the complex-frequency plane.

A signal whose Laplace transform  $F(s)$  has the above mentioned properties is called a minimum-phase signal. See Zadeh et al. [3] for a more elaborate treatment of minimum-phase signals. We conclude therefore that for the extrapolation transfer function  $X(s)$  to be strictly stable,  $E_{\text{sim}}(s)$  needs to be a minimum-phase signal, or needs to be made minimum phase if it is not.

With respect to the latter remark, it is important to note that the magnitude of the spectrum of a signal whose Laplace transform has some zeros located in the right half-plane, is the same as that of a minimum-phase signal whose Laplace transform has those zeros reflected with respect to the  $j\omega$ -axis into the left half-plane.

Note that if  $F(s)$  in Theorem 2 is a rational function, for  $f^{-1}(t)$  to be bounded it is sufficient that its poles and zeros are located in the left half-plane, as a rational function does not have branch points.

### 2.3 TRADITIONAL IMPLEMENTATIONS OF INCIDENT FIELD EXTRAPOLATION

Traditional implementations of incident field extrapolation are based on Eq.(5) with  $s=j\omega$ , but differ in the way  $X(j\omega)$  is computed. We mention the following three methods for determining  $X(j\omega)$ <sup>4</sup>:

1. compute  $E_{\text{sim}}(j\omega)$  with a Fast Fourier Transform (FFT);
2. compute  $E_{\text{sim}}(j\omega)$  with a FFT, but use a minimum-phase fit of the amplitude of  $E_{\text{sim}}(j\omega)$  (see Fisher et al. [4]);
3. approximate  $e_{\text{sim}}(t)$  by a Singularity Expansion Method (SEM) representation, then  $E_{\text{sim}}(j\omega)$  is also known (see Van de Sande [5]).

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<sup>4</sup> Note that  $E_{\text{EMP}}(j\omega)$  is available in analytical form.

All of these methods compute the extrapolated response  $g_x(t)$  by applying the inverse FFT to  $X(j\omega) G_{\text{sim}}(j\omega)$ . For an elaborate treatment of the SEM the reader is referred to Baum [6].

Method 1 has the disadvantage that it can yield an unstable extrapolation transfer function as has been pointed out in Section 2.2. To circumvent this, Method 2 has been employed. In this method, the phase of  $E_{\text{sim}}(j\omega)$  is determined from  $|E_{\text{sim}}(j\omega)|$  as if  $E_{\text{sim}}(j\omega)$  is a minimum-phase signal. This seems to assure a strictly stable extrapolation transfer function. For more details on how to construct the phase of a signal from the magnitude of its spectrum see Oppenheim et al. [7].

The advantage of Method 3 is that no aliasing error occurs, and that no high-frequency noise is introduced as a result of a truncated time window. However, Method 3 does not guarantee a stable extrapolation transfer function. With care these difficulties can be overcome and an extrapolation procedure based upon Method 3 and the considerations given in Section 2.2 will be developed in the next chapter.

### 3 TIME-DOMAIN INCIDENT FIELD EXTRAPOLATION

Method 3 of Section 2.3 has some useful properties. We mention:

- the extrapolation transfer function contains no aliasing errors;
- the extrapolation transfer function contains no quantization noise and no high-frequency noise due to a truncated time window;
- the extrapolation transfer function is known for all frequencies below the Nyquist criterion, which enhances the low-frequency resolution.

Since the extrapolation transfer function is known analytically, it is possible to perform the extrapolation entirely in the time domain. Once the extrapolation impulse response is computed, the extrapolated responses can be found by convolving the measured signals with the extrapolation impulse response. This idea will be pursued in the subsequent sections.

#### 3.1 THE SEM REPRESENTATION OF A TRANSIENT SIGNAL

The SEM postulates that a transient signal can be written as a series of exponentials with complex-valued arguments. So, according to the SEM a causal transient signal  $f(t)$  can be represented as

$$f(t) \approx \sum_{i=1}^N A_i e^{s_i t} U(t), \quad (12)$$

with

- $s_i$  : a simple pole,
- $A_i$  : the residue pertaining to the pole  $s_i$ ,
- $U(t)$  : the Heaviside step function,
- $N$  : number of poles.

In general, the poles and residues are complex valued, but since the signal  $f(t)$  is real valued, they occur in complex-conjugate pairs. For  $f(t)$  to be bounded, all the poles  $s_i$  have to lie in the left half-plane or on the  $j\omega$ -axis of the complex-frequency plane, i.e.,  $\{s_i \in \mathbb{C}: \Re(s_i) \leq 0\}$ .

To extract the poles and residues of a transient signal, several methods are known. We mention Prony's method (see Kay [8]), and the Pencil-Of-Functions (POF) technique (see MacKay [9]). Treatment of these methods is beyond the scope of this report.

Once the poles and residues of  $f(t)$  are computed with either Prony's method or the POF technique, the Laplace transform of the signal is also known. It is given by (partial-

fraction expansion)

$$F(s) = \sum_{i=1}^N A_i \frac{1}{s-s_i}. \quad (13)$$

This representation was used in Van de Sande [5] to approximate  $E_{sim}(s)$ . The extrapolation transfer function was then constructed using the Laplace transform of Eq.(2), and the extrapolated response was computed by applying the inverse FFT to  $X(j\omega) G_{sim}(j\omega)$ .

The inverse FFT, however, can be circumvented entirely by determining the extrapolation impulse response analytically. For that purpose, the partial-fraction expansion of Eq.(13) will be casted in a rational form, i.e.,

$$F(s) = \sum_{i=1}^N A_i \prod_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq i}}^N (s-s_j) / \prod_{j=1}^N (s-s_j) = \frac{p(s)}{q(s)}, \quad (14)$$

where  $p(s)$  is the polynomial of the numerator which is of degree  $N-1$ , and  $q(s)$  is the polynomial of the denominator and is of degree  $N$ . The polynomial  $p(s)$  is given by

$$p(s) = \sum_{i=1}^N A_i p_i(s), \quad (15)$$

and

$$q(s) = \prod_{j=1}^N (s-s_j), \quad (16)$$

in which

$$p_i(s) = \prod_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq i}}^N (s-s_j) = \frac{q(s)}{(s-s_i)}. \quad (17)$$

As the complex poles and residues occur in complex-conjugate pairs, it can be proven that the coefficients of both  $p(s)$  and  $q(s)$  are real valued.

Generally, the polynomial  $p(s)$  is of degree  $N-1$ <sup>5</sup>, so it has  $N-1$  zeros. This allows the following representation for  $p(s)$

$$p(s) = c \prod_{j=1}^{N-1} (s-z_j), \quad (18)$$

where the  $z_j$ 's are the zeros of  $p(s)$  (and of  $F(s)$ ), i.e.,  $p(z_j) = 0$ , and  $c$  is a proportionality constant to be determined later. It can be shown that  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ , which also follows from the fact that the complex poles and residues occur in complex-conjugate pairs.

The zeros  $z_j$  can be found from

$$p(s) = \sum_{i=1}^N A_i p_i(s) = 0, \quad (19)$$

and have to be determined numerically with a root find algorithm, such as the IMSL subroutine ZPLRC (see [10]). It is noted that the zeros depend on the poles and residues, but a direct relation cannot be established.

Once the zeros  $z_j$  are known, the constant  $c$  can be found from the value of  $F(s)$  at  $s = 0$ . After substituting Eq.(18) in Eq.(14), we find

$$F(s) = \frac{p(s)}{q(s)} = \frac{c \prod_{j=1}^{N-1} (s-z_j)}{q(s)}, \quad (20)$$

and after equating this result with Eq.(13), this yields for  $c$  at  $s = 0$

$$c = \frac{\left( \prod_{j=1}^N s_j \right) \sum_{i=1}^N A_i s_i^{-1}}{\prod_{j=1}^{N-1} z_j}. \quad (21)$$

---

<sup>5</sup> It can be proven that if  $f(0) = 0$ ,  $p(s)$  is of degree  $N-2$ .

### 3.2 THE EXTRAPOLATION IMPULSE RESPONSE

To determine the extrapolation impulse response,  $e_{\text{sim}}(t)$  is approximated with a SEM representation. To be able to do so, the poles and residues of  $e_{\text{sim}}(t)$  have to be determined first with a pole extraction method, e.g. with Prony's method or the POF-technique. Subsequently, the zeros of  $E_{\text{sim}}(s)$  are determined from its poles and residues in the way described in Section 3.1. This yields the following representation for  $E_{\text{sim}}(s)$  (cf. Eq.(14))

$$E_{\text{sim}}(s) = \frac{p(s)}{q(s)}, \quad (22)$$

where  $q(s)$  and  $p(s)$  are given by Eqs.(16) and (18), respectively. The roots of  $q(s)$  are the poles of  $E_{\text{sim}}(s)$ , while the roots of  $p(s)$  are the zeros of  $E_{\text{sim}}(s)$ . Since  $e_{\text{sim}}(t)$  is a real-valued signal, any complex-valued zeros occur in complex-conjugate pairs.

It was proven in Section 2.2 that, for the extrapolation transfer function to be strictly stable, all the zeros of  $E_{\text{sim}}(s)$  are required to lie in the left half-plane. In general, this is not the case, so that  $E_{\text{sim}}(s)$  has to be made minimum phase simply by negating the real part of any zeros which lie in the right half-plane.

Using the representation of Eq.(22) for  $E_{\text{sim}}(s)$ , the extrapolation transfer function is given by

$$X(s) = \frac{q(s)}{p(s)} E_{\text{EMP}}(s). \quad (23)$$

If Eq.(2) is used as the waveform to which the response is required, we find for  $E_{\text{EMP}}(s)$

$$E_{\text{EMP}}(s) = A \left( \frac{1}{s+\alpha} - \frac{1}{s+\beta} \right) = A(\beta-\alpha) \frac{1}{(s+\alpha)(s+\beta)}. \quad (24)$$

After substituting Eq.(24) in Eq.(23), and after applying a partial-fraction expansion of  $X(s)$ , we finally get

$$X(s) = \sum_{i=1}^{N+1} B_i \frac{1}{s-z_i}, \quad (25)$$

in which we have ordered the zeros so that  $\{z_i \in \mathbb{C}: i=1, \dots, N-1\}$  are the zeros of the



minimum-phase signal of  $E_{\text{sim}}(s)$ ,  $z_N = -\alpha$ , and  $z_{N+1} = -\beta$ .  $B_i \in \mathbb{C}$  denotes the residue pertaining to the zero  $z_i$  given by

$$B_i = \lim_{s \rightarrow z_i} (s - z_i) X(s) = \frac{A}{c} (\beta - \alpha) \frac{\prod_{j=1}^N (z_i - s_j)}{\prod_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq i}}^{N+1} (z_i - z_j)}. \quad (26)$$

From Eq.(25) the corresponding extrapolation impulse response is easily found. It is given by

$$x(t) = \sum_{i=1}^{N+1} B_i e^{z_i t} U(t). \quad (27)$$

Since  $x(t)$  is real valued, any complex-valued zeros  $z_i$  and residues  $B_i$  occur in complex-conjugate pairs.

Obviously, since  $\{z_i \in \mathbb{C}: \Re(z_i) \leq 0\}$ ,  $X(s)$  is strictly stable, which follows from Theorem 1.

The extrapolated responses can now be found (see Eq.(7)) by convolving the measured signals with the extrapolation impulse response of Eq.(27).

## 4 NUMERICAL RESULTS

The procedure outlined in the previous chapter has been employed to a field mapping of the Vertical Polarized Dipole (VPD) version of FEL-TNO's EMIS-3 simulator (a transportable radiating simulator). We will use as the waveform to which the response is required (the criterion environment) the double-exponential waveform given by Eq.(2). This waveform is depicted in Figure 4.1.

Figure 4.2 shows an incident-field measurement (H-field measurement) of the above mentioned simulator. The digitizer used has a record length of 512 samples, and an 8-bit resolution. When this signal is extrapolated, it should be approximately equal to the waveform of the criterion environment.

Firstly, the field-mapping measurement is approximated with a SEM representation using Prony's method. The number of poles (and residues) to approximate the original signal is 17. The signal that has been reconstructed using the 17 poles and residues is shown in Figure 4.3.

Secondly, using the poles and residues generated by the Prony program, the zeros and the proportionality constant of the rational representation of the approximated signal are determined. It was found that some zeros are located in the right half-plane of the complex-frequency plane, so that a minimum-phase signal is constructed simply by negating the real part of the zeros which are located in the right half-plane. The resulting minimum-phase signal is shown in Figure 4.4. The magnitude of the spectrum of the minimum-phase signal is not shown, because it is the same as that of Figure 4.3b. Comparing Figure 4.3a with Figure 4.4a shows that the only noticeable difference between these signals is around the peak value of the signals.

Subsequently, the extrapolation impulse response is constructed using the double-exponential waveform and the minimum-phase signal of Figure 4.4a. It is shown in Figure 4.5a. The magnitude and the phase of the spectrum of the corresponding extrapolation transfer function are depicted in the Figures 4.5b and 4.5c, respectively. In Figure 4.5d, the phase of the unstable extrapolation transfer function is shown (using the approximated signal of Figure 4.3a).

Finally, to show the effects of each step in the process of obtaining the extrapolation impulse response, the extrapolation impulse response is convolved with the following three signals:

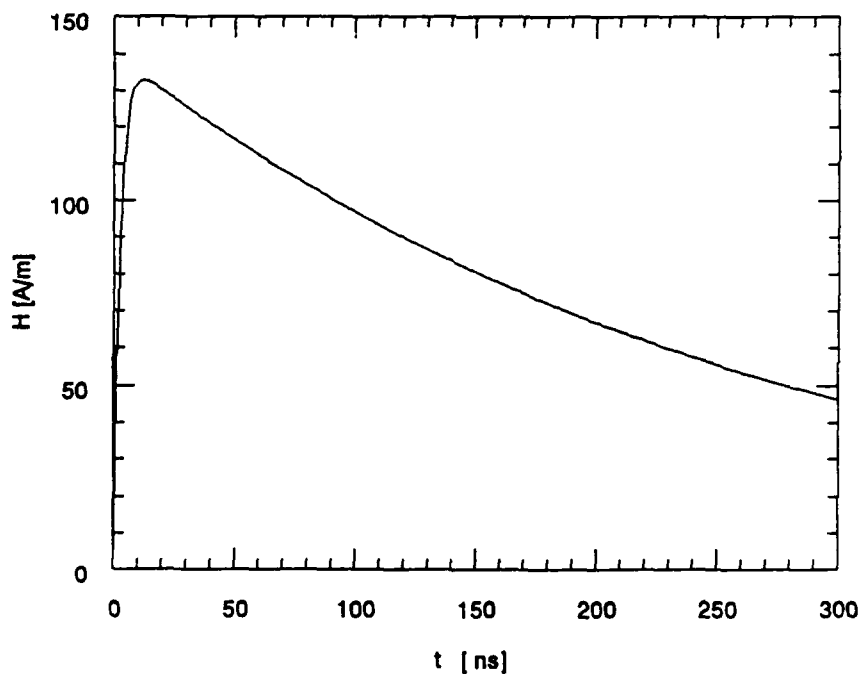
1. the minimum-phase signal of Figure 4.4a,
2. the approximated signal of Figure 4.3a,
3. the original signal of Figure 4.2.

The results are depicted in the Figures 4.6, 4.7 and 4.8, respectively. The convolution is determined using the procedure described in Appendix A. Each of the first two data sets contained the same number of samples as the original signal, i.e., 512 samples.

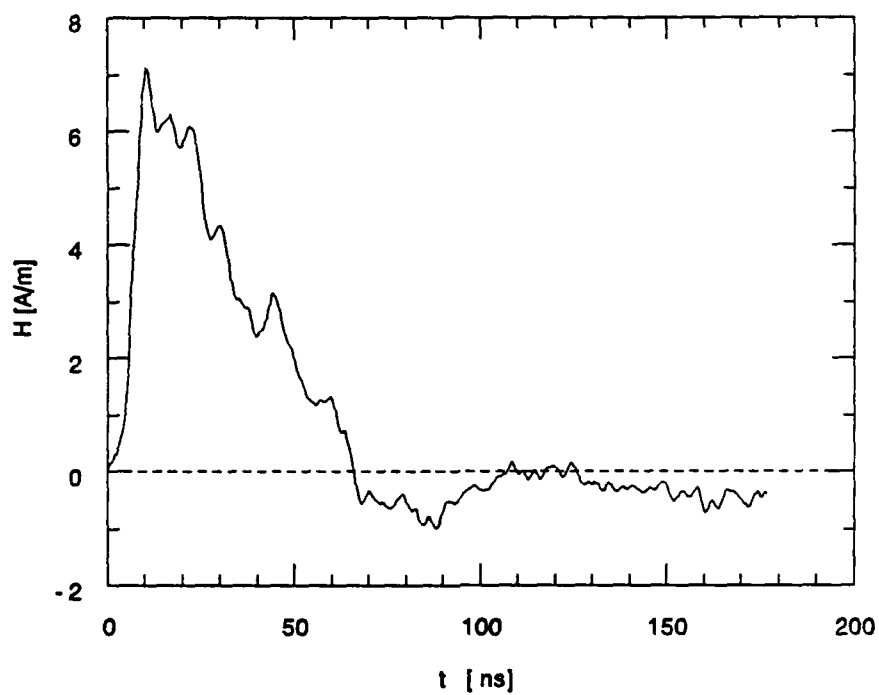
Obviously, convolving the minimum-phase signal with the extrapolation impulse response, which is constructed from the minimum-phase signal, yields the exact waveform of the criterion environment. This is demonstrated in Figure 4.6 (compare this figure with Figure 4.1).

The influence on the extrapolated signal of making the approximated signal minimum phase can be seen from Figure 4.7. This shows that (in this case) the effect is small.

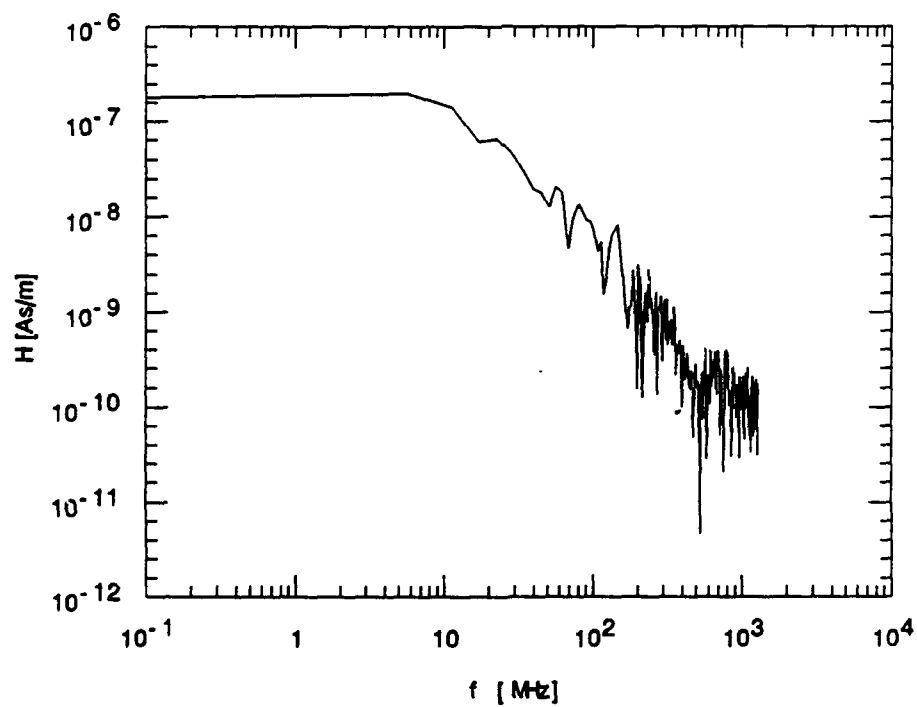
The total influence of approximating the original signal with a SEM representation, and making this signal minimum phase is depicted in Figure 4.8. When judging this last plot, one has to keep in mind that the extrapolation transfer function enhances the high frequencies, so that noise and quantization errors in the original signal are amplified.



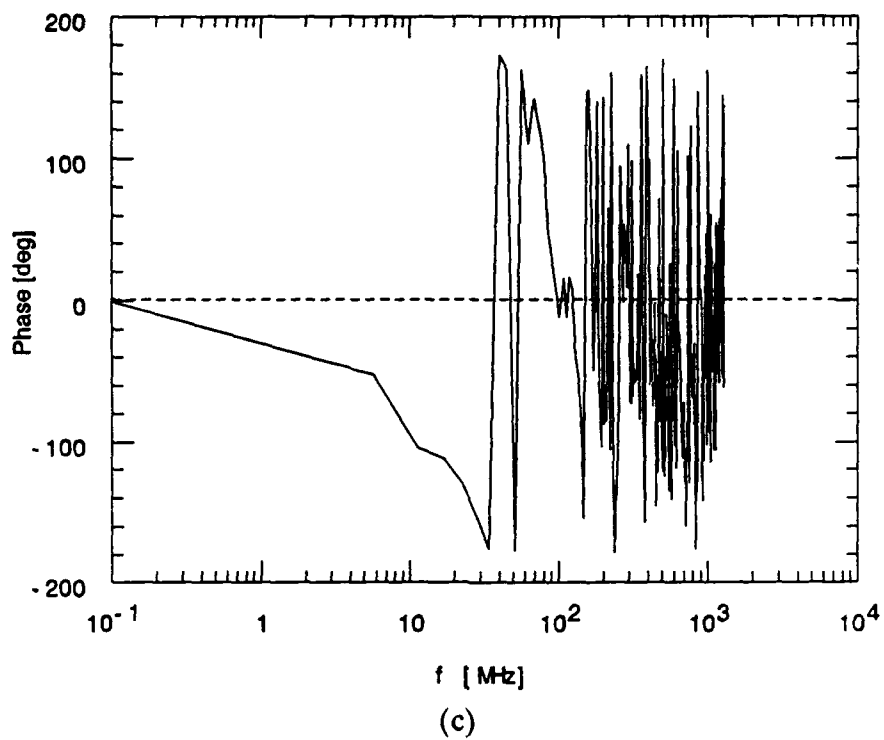
**Figure 4.1** The prevailing waveform in the criterion environment.



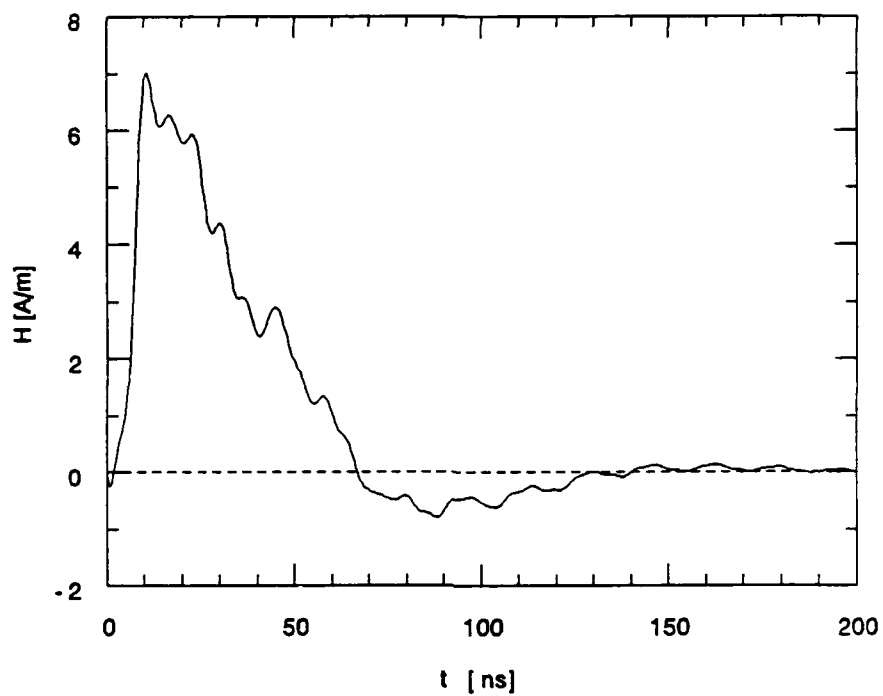
(a)



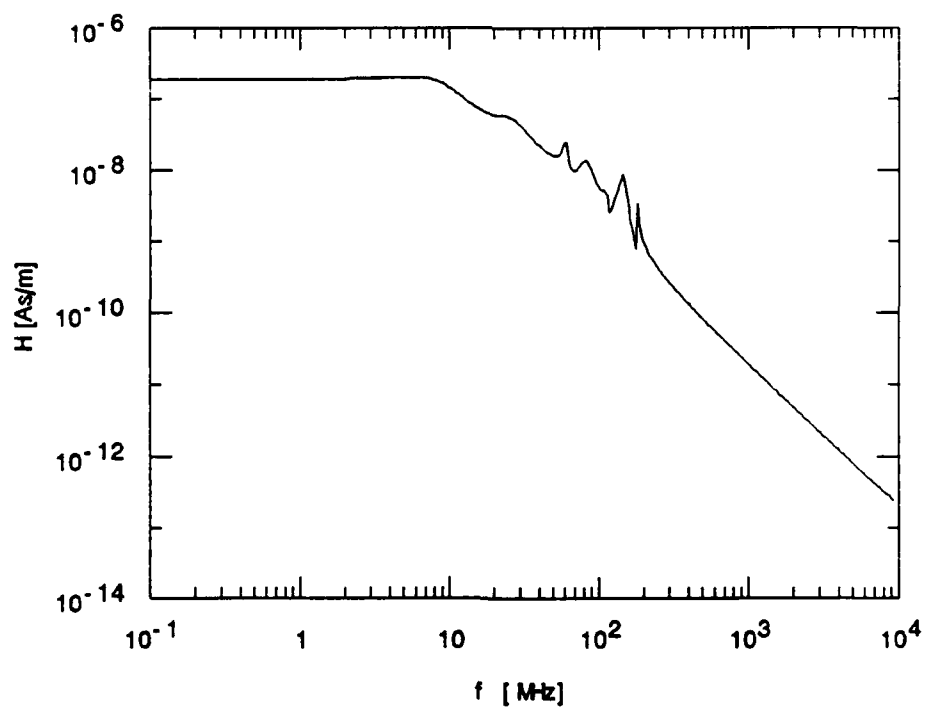
(b)



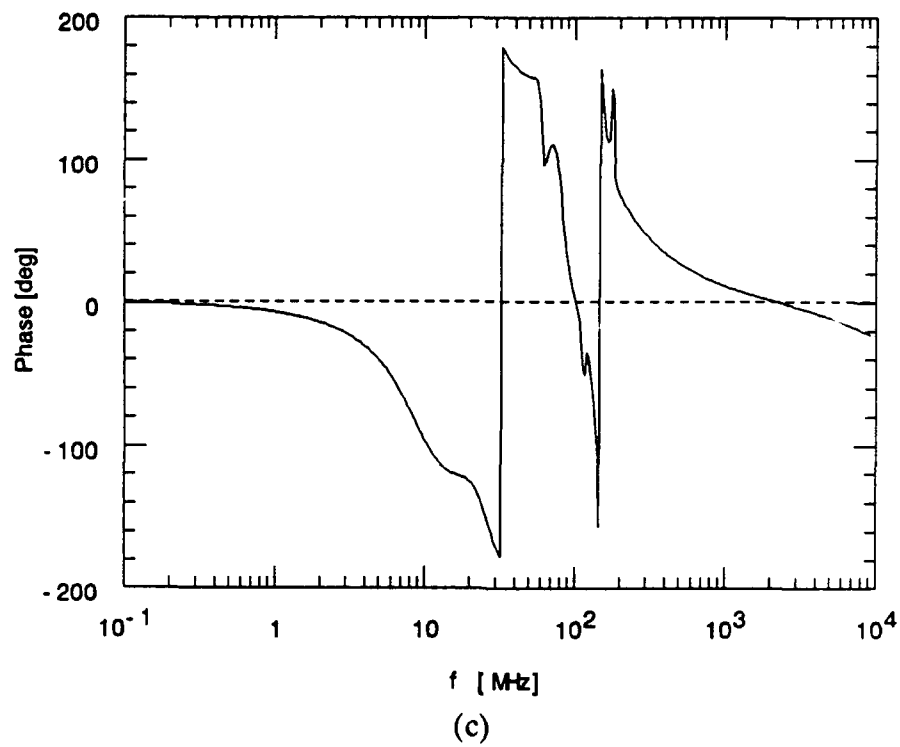
**Figure 4.2** Incident H-field generated by the simulator.  
a) time domain,  
b) magnitude of the spectrum,  
c) phase of the spectrum.



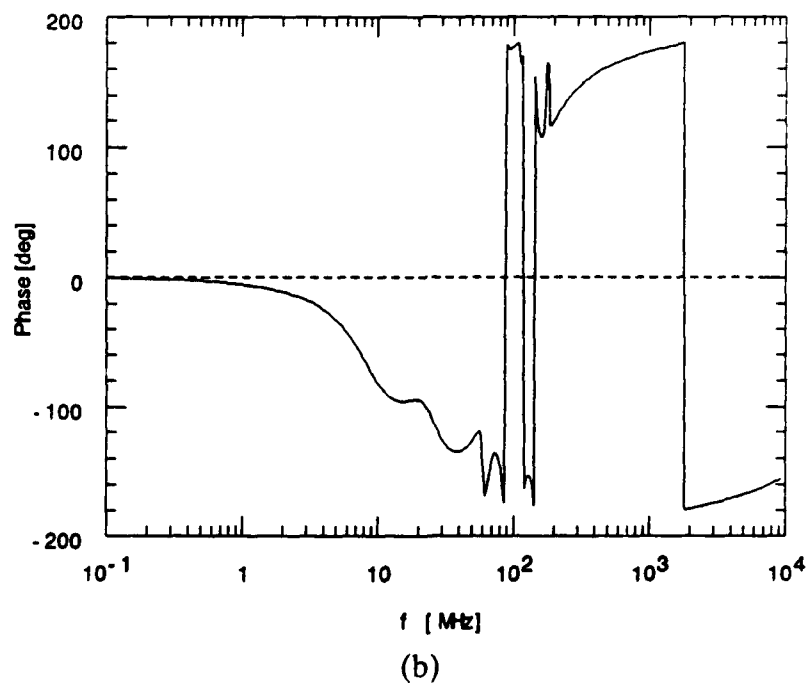
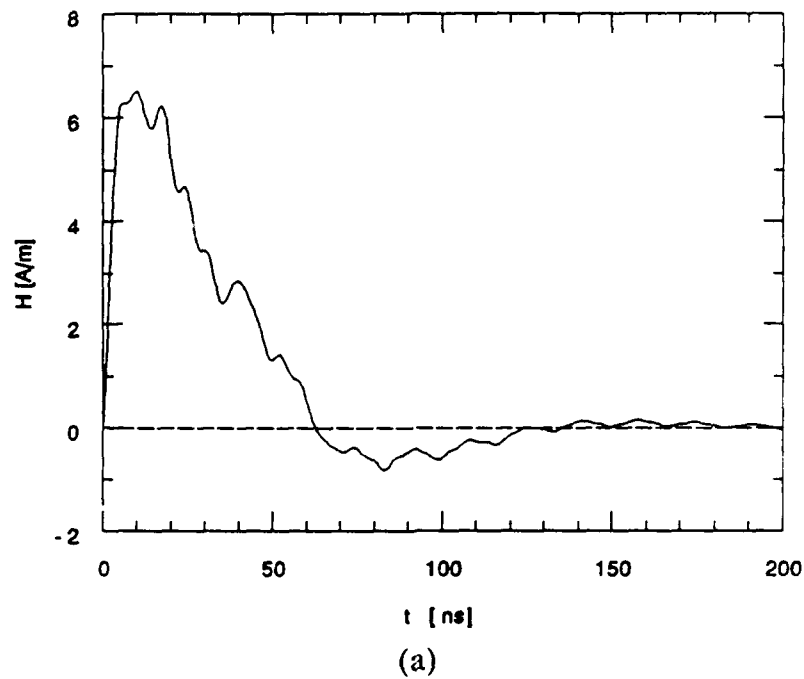
(a)



(b)

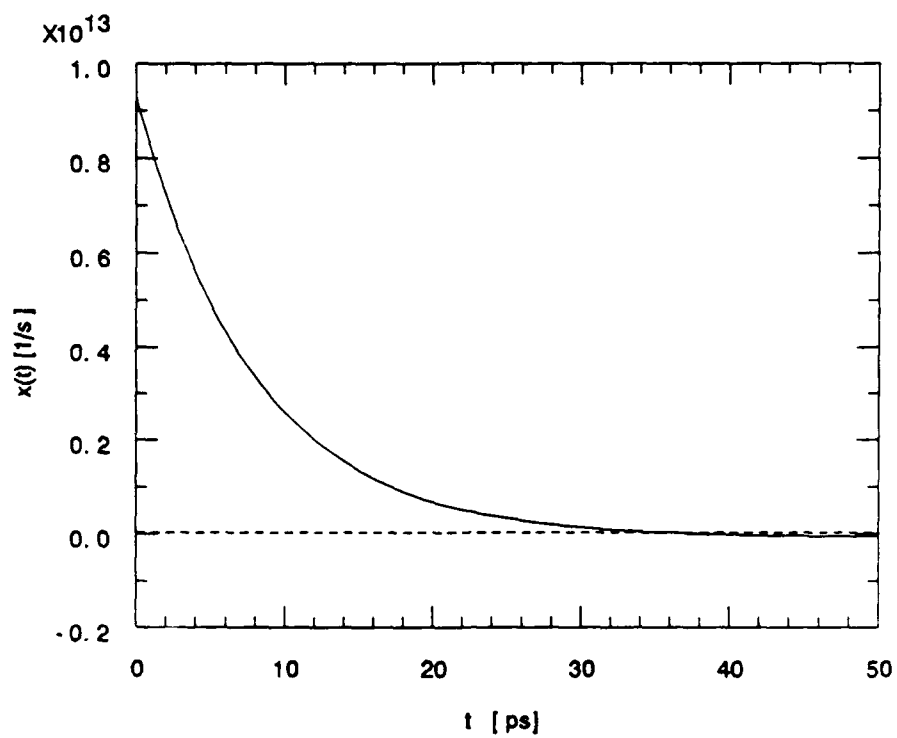


**Figure 4.3** Incident H-field measurement approximated with Prony's method (17 poles).  
a) time-domain,  
b) magnitude of the spectrum,  
c) phase of the spectrum.

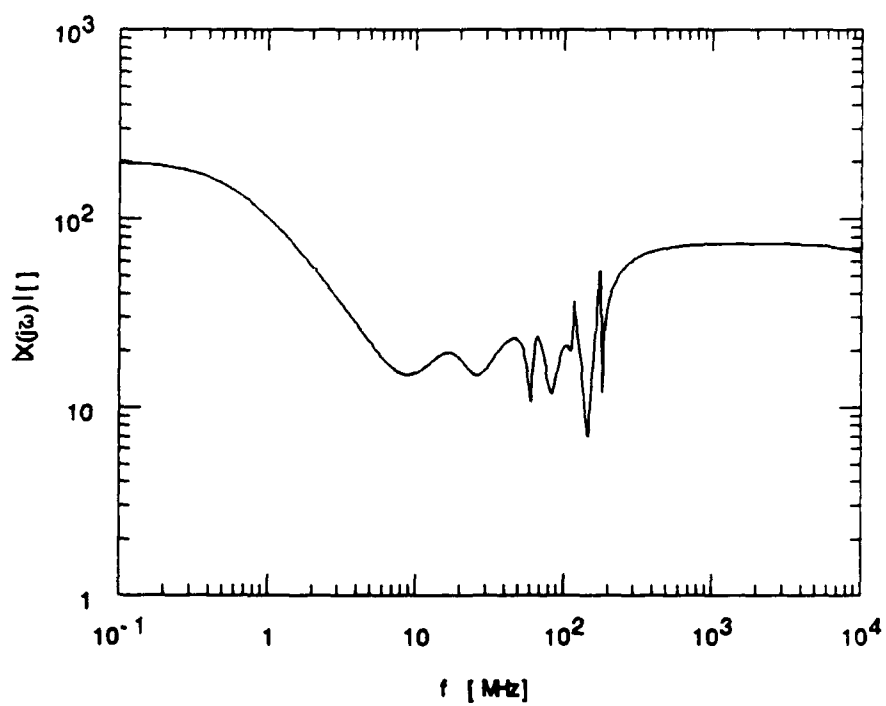


**Figure 4.4** Minimum-phase signal of approximated incident H-field measurement.  
a) time domain,  
b) phase of the spectrum.

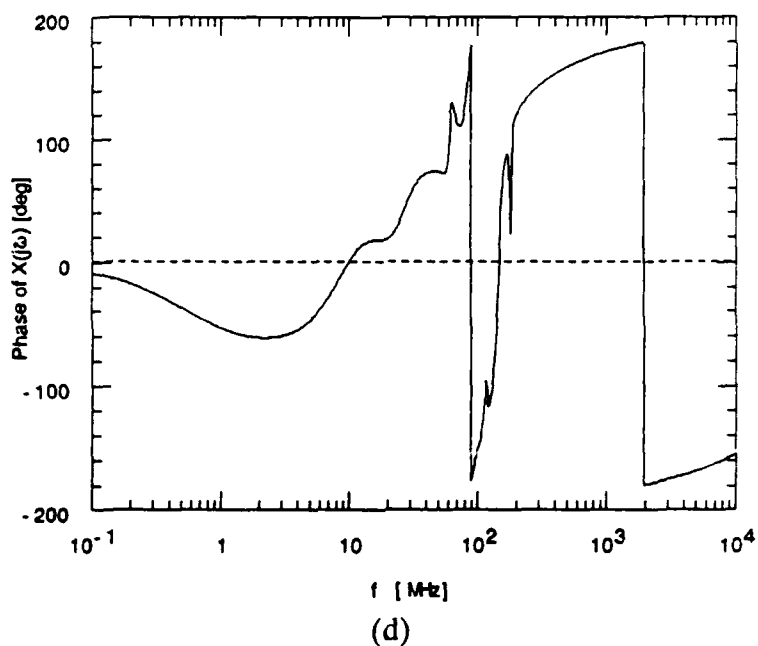
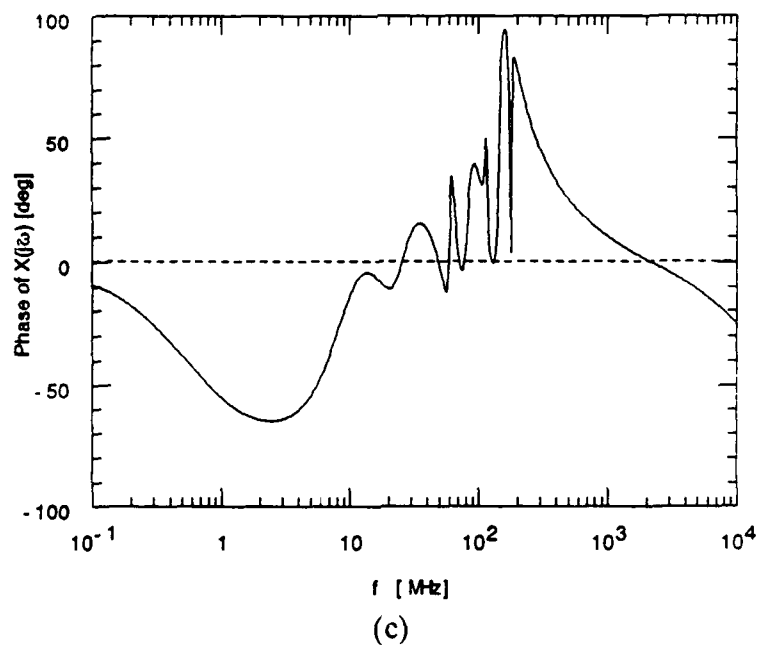




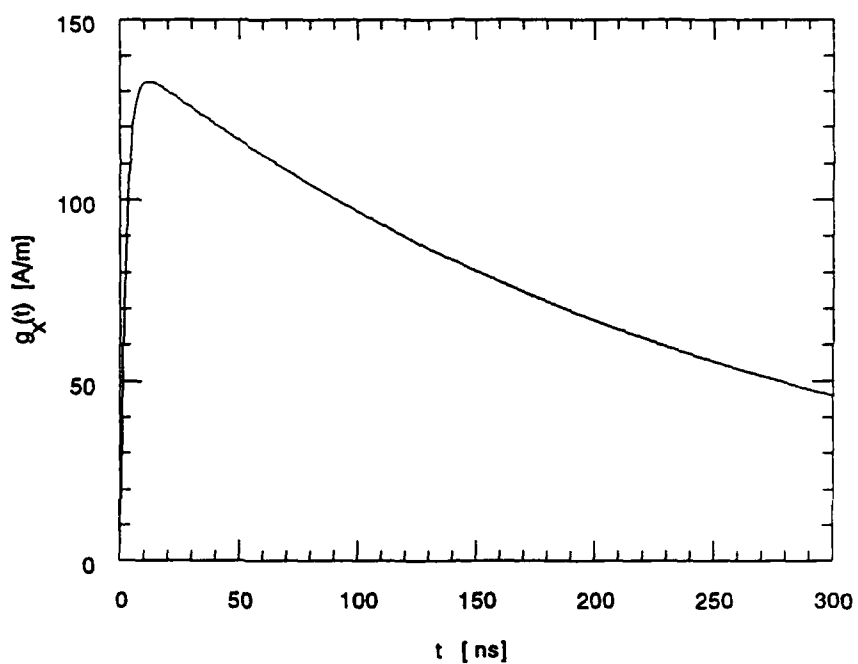
(a)



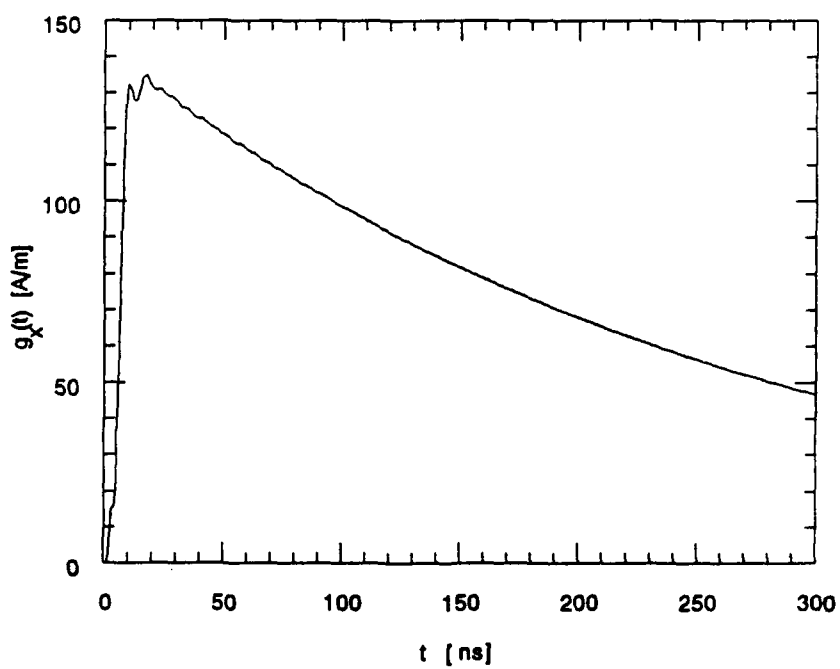
(b)



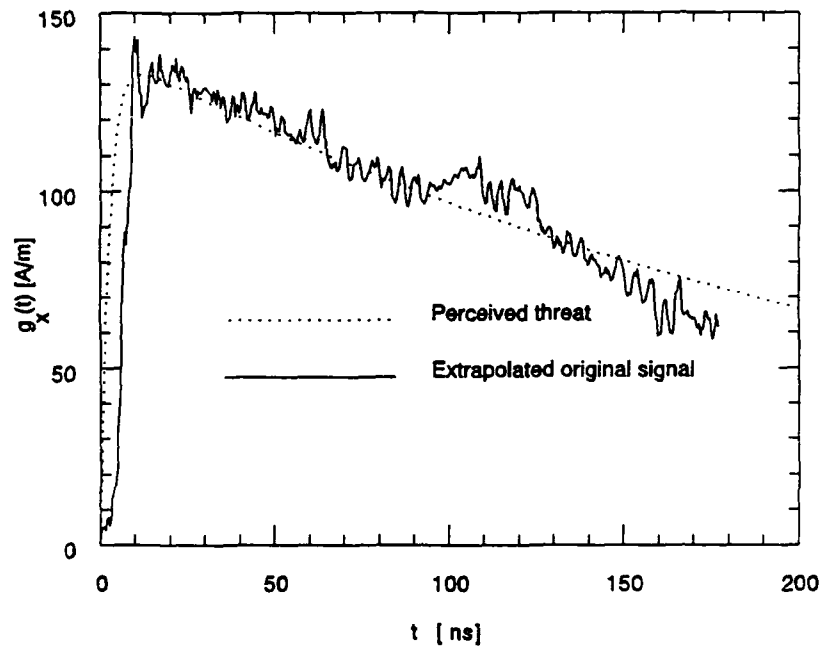
**Figure 4.5** The extrapolation function pertaining to the signal of Figure 4.2a:  
 a) extrapolation impulse response,  
 b) magnitude of the extrapolation transfer function,  
 c) phase of the extrapolation transfer function,  
 d) phase of the non-stable extrapolation transfer function.



**Figure 4.6** Result of the convolution of the extrapolation impulse response with the minimum-phase signal of Figure 4.4a.



**Figure 4.7** Result of the convolution of the extrapolation impulse response with the approximated signal of Figure 4.3a.



**Figure 4.8** Result of the convolution of the extrapolation impulse response with the original signal of Figure 4.2.

## 5 CONCLUSIONS

A method has been developed and implemented to perform the incident field extrapolation.

A necessary requirement for the extrapolation transfer function to be strictly stable, is that it is a minimum-phase signal. Making the extrapolation transfer function minimum phase can be accomplished very easily with this method.

Because the method which has been presented does not use a Fast Fourier Transform, it circumvents aliasing errors, high-frequency noise due to a truncated time window and quantization noise in the extrapolation transfer function.

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## A EVALUATION OF THE CONVOLUTION INTEGRAL

The time scales of the extrapolation impulse response  $x(t)$  and the signal to be extrapolated  $g_{\text{sim}}(t)$  can differ significantly, so that special care has to be taken to compute the convolution integral given by (cf. Eq.(7))

$$g_x(t) = x(t) * g_{\text{sim}}(t) = \int_0^t g_{\text{sim}}(t-\tau) x(\tau) d\tau. \quad (\text{A.1})$$

Using the fact that the extrapolation impulse response is known in analytical form, however, the convolution integral can be computed very accurately.

Let  $t = n\Delta t$ , where  $\Delta t$  is the time step of the sampled data  $g_{\text{sim}}(t)$ , then  $g_x(n) \doteq g_x(n\Delta t)$  is given by

$$g_x(n) = \sum_{i=1}^n \int_{(i-1)\Delta t}^{i\Delta t} g_{\text{sim}}(n\Delta t - \tau) x(\tau) d\tau. \quad (\text{A.2})$$

The time step is assumed to be so small over the interval of integration  $[(i-1)\Delta t, i\Delta t]$ , that  $g_{\text{sim}}(n\Delta t - \tau)$  may be approximated by

$$g_{\text{sim}}(n\Delta t - \tau) \approx \frac{g_{\text{sim}}(n-i+1) - g_{\text{sim}}(n-i)}{\Delta t} (i\Delta t - \tau) + g_{\text{sim}}(n-i). \quad (i-1)\Delta t \leq \tau \leq i\Delta t \quad (\text{A.3})$$

After substituting Eq.(A.3) in Eq.(A.2), this yields

$$g_x(n) = \sum_{i=1}^n g_{\text{sim}}(n-i) x_1(i) - g_{\text{sim}}(n-i+1) x_1(i-1) + \frac{g_{\text{sim}}(n-i+1) - g_{\text{sim}}(n-i)}{\Delta t} \int_{(i-1)\Delta t}^{i\Delta t} x_1(\tau) d\tau, \quad (\text{A.4})$$

where  $x_1(i)$  denotes the integrated extrapolation impulse response given by

$$x_1(i) \doteq x_1(i\Delta t) = \int_0^{i\Delta t} x(\tau) d\tau = \sum_{j=1}^{N+1} \frac{B_j}{s_j} (e^{s_j i\Delta t} - 1). \quad (\text{A.5})$$

Using the notation  $x_2(i)$  for the twice integrated extrapolation impulse response, i.e.,

$$x_2(i) \doteq x_2(i\Delta t) = \int_0^{i\Delta t} x_1(\tau) d\tau = \sum_{j=1}^{N+1} \frac{B_j}{s_j} \left( \frac{e^{s_j i\Delta t} - 1}{s_j} - i\Delta t \right), \quad (\text{A.6})$$

we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} g_x(n) = & \sum_{i=1}^n g_{\text{sim}}(n-i) x_1(i) - g_{\text{sim}}(n-i+1) x_1(i-1) \\ & + \frac{g_{\text{sim}}(n-i+1) - g_{\text{sim}}(n-i)}{\Delta t} (x_2(i) - x_2(i-1)). \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A.7})$$

After collecting terms, Eq.(A.7) is finally rewritten as

$$\begin{aligned} g_x(n) = & -[x_1(0) - \frac{x_2(1) - x_2(0)}{\Delta t}] g_{\text{sim}}(n) \\ & + [x_1(n) - \frac{x_2(n) - x_2(n-1)}{\Delta t}] g_{\text{sim}}(0) \\ & + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \frac{x_2(i-1) - 2x_2(i) + x_2(i+1)}{\Delta t} g_{\text{sim}}(n-i). \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A.8})$$



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(U) In this report, a method is presented to extrapolate measurements from Nuclear Electromagnetic Pulse (NEMP) assessments directly in the time domain. This method is based on a time-domain extrapolation function which is obtained from the Singularity Expansion Method representation of the measured incident field of the NEMP simulator.

(U) Once the time-domain extrapolation function is determined, the responses recorded during an assessment can be extrapolated simply by convolving them with the time-domain extrapolation function.

(U) It is found that to obtain useful extrapolated signals, the incident field measurement needs to be made minimum phase; otherwise unbounded results can be obtained.

(U) Results obtained with this technique are presented, using data from actual assessments.

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